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ABSTRACT

An approach to building an effective training and development (T&D) process within postsecondary institutions is described. The process involves three distinct phases: developing an inservice skills training program, institutionalizing an on-the-job career development process, and conducting organizational development activities. The focus of the skills training phase is individual performance, while the career development phase focuses on supervisory role performance. During each phase, successful T&D managers understand organizational realities, and set goals and allocate resources accordingly. Management concerns during the inservice skills training phase include: program design, marketing, logistics, and preparation of the trainer. During the introduction of career development, the T&D manager must work with: top management to develop personnel policies and procedures, supervisors to inform them about staff development techniques and employee problems, and union and employees groups to build support for career development programs. Organizational development activities of the manager include collecting data about performance and planning for change. Problems that occur in each phase and strategies that the T&D manager might follow are also discussed. (SW)

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BUILDING A TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

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Abstract

This article describes how to build an effective training and development (T&D) process within post-secondary institutions. The process evolves through three distinct phases, from a low-cost skills training activity into a management and organization development program. The article argues that the key to success is a T&D manager who can anticipate obstacles, make the right strategic choices, and grow with the job. These problems, choices, and the changing role of the T&D manager are analyzed.

Building a Training and Development Program

Colleges and universities have been slow to establish staff development programs. Despite industrial evidence that investment in improved staff skills can yield improved productivity and commitment, college administrators have ignored or persistently underfunded training and development (T&D) activities. However, catpaws of change can be detected upon the benign sea of neglect.

Forces promoting the institutionalization of T&D programs in American colleges include these:

1. The creation of successful models by a number of flagship institutions, e.g., Cornell, Harvard, Missouri, Stanford, Princeton, Yale;
2. The formation of several professional associations which disseminate know-how and enthusiasm throughout the post-secondary community, e.g., the National Council of Staff, Program, and Organizational Development (NCSPOD); the Professional and Organizational Development (POD) Network in Higher Education;
3. The establishment of institutes designed to foster the introduction of staff development programs, e.g., the American Council on Education/Higher Education Management Institute (ACE/HEMI) Manage-

ment Development and Training Program; the National Institute for Staff and Organizational Development (NISOD).

Although the availability of models, networks, and outside support may foster the introduction of staff development programs by enlightened colleges, the success of new programs will depend upon other factors. This article argues that successful T&D programs are best institutionalized by the appointment of a full-time professional T&D manager. The flagship institutions mentioned previously all established the T&D activity within their personnel departments--an arrangement which provides the new activity with important programmatic and resource linkages.

This article also contends that successful T&D programs evolve in predictable ways; specifically, through three broad phases (Figure 1). During each phase, the successful T&D manager understands the organizational realities she faces, sets goals and allocates resources accordingly. The stages are:

1. Phase I: Credibility is established by producing a carefully targeted in-service skills training program.
2. Phase II: Impact is multiplied by institutionalizing an on-the-job career development process throughout the organization.
3. Phase III: System performance is affected by organization development (OD) activity.

PHASE:	SKILLS TRAINING	CAREER DEVELOPMENT	ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT
FOCUS:	Individual Performance	Supervisory Role Performance	Organizational Performance
GOAL:	Obvious Payoffs	Multiply Impact	Process Improvement
MODE:	Classroom	Ongoing On-The- Job Development	Natural Work Group
CONTENT:	Job skills, Procedures, Orientation, Wellness	H.R.D. Policies, Mgmt. Training, Individ. Develop. Planning	Change Processes: Data Gathering, Change Planning, Evaluation
PROBLEMS:	Expectations, Unclear Needs, Unsuitable Packaged Programs, Workload	Unskilled Supvrs, Wary Staff, Rigid Career Paths, Faculty Needs, Unions	Unreceptive Mgmt., Politics, Dual Cores, Org. Readiness, Personal Prep- aration
T&D MGR. ROLE:	Worker: Design Pgms., Train Trainers	Organizer: Sell New Procedures, Train Supvrs.	Consultant: Guide Action Research Process

Figure 1. Training and Development Program Evolution

PHASE I: IN-SERVICE SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAM

Objective

During the first phase, the training manager's objective is to establish credibility for herself and her unit in the eyes of the organization's management and her clients. If credibility is not established during the first phase, there will be no second and third phases to the unit's evolution.

Problems

Operating a training and development office is a difficult job. Starting one from scratch is even more difficult. Admittedly, a manager founding a new T&D activity enjoys some tactical advantages. For example, entering an organization which has no history of training frees the new T&D manager of tradition's burden. Innovation may be constrained by others' expectations, but not by prior practice. Moreover, potential critics of the activity may adopt a wait-and-see attitude for a period of time. However, this grace period does not last.

To establish credibility, the first order of business is to produce some obvious payoffs by improving employee performance. It is not coincidental that most successful T&D

functions begin with individual skills training, as opposed to management development or organizational development.

In fact, it is precisely the T&D manager's lack of initial credibility which prevents her from beginning by asking busy, and perhaps wary, supervisors to participate in management development activities. When the organization has no history of T&D, administrators cannot be expected to support management development activity until it becomes clear that T&D will pay off for them personally, and for the Organization. An employee skills training program, which deals with problems managers help to identify, demonstrates the utility of T&D.

Similarly, it is difficult to begin with organization development activities. Since OD is designed to open the organization to changes in basic structure and process, it is far too threatening. Admittedly, conducting a successful high-level OD project could do a lot to enhance the T&D manager's credibility. But the risks are high. One reason OD activities appear during the last phase of T&D program evolution is the need to develop management skills and support first.

When building an in-service skills training program, the new T&D manager faces several difficulties. Often the new manager is expected to serve as a shirt-sleeves worker, personally coordinating and teaching the program. Job advertisements for T&D directors recognize this problem by noting "excellent platform skills required" in the fine print.

Another problem in launching an employee skills training program is the need to develop most of the content and materials from scratch. By definition, packaged programs are unsuitable to teach local job practices and procedures--the first thrust of a successful program. To make matters worse, the new T&D manager may be a newcomer to the organization; in which case, she knows relatively little about the subject matter of her programs.

Without a history to condition client attitudes, the T&D manager can stumble on the most basic issues. For example, until a training policy is published, supervisors may complain: "Where does it say I have to release employees from work to attend training?" Or staff may ask: "Why do I have to ask my boss for permission to go to a workshop?"

Most management cadres have some idiosyncratic notions about what the T&D manager's initial goals should be. Usually, new T&D functions are founded to fix problems perceived by the organization's managers as "training problems." The new T&D manager is expected to deal first with these. Unfortunately, some of the perceived difficulties may not be training problems at all.

Strategy

It is important that the new T&D manager convince her superiors of the importance of a comprehensive training needs analysis before mounting any programs. Only the needs

analysis can identify which problems training can ameliorate and define the kind of training needed (Steadham, 1980).

In general, the best payoff from employee skills training programs results when similar training needs are identified across large occupational groups. For example, most bureaucracies face the never-ending problem of teaching large numbers of office staff to operate the "paper mill" efficiently. Training in office procedures, e.g., purchasing, budget, and accounting paperflow, is often the path to impact in these types of organizations. Similarly, technical training needs must be examined carefully in blue-collar environments, and new employee orientation in labor-intensive departments having high turnover.

One should not define "skills training" too narrowly. For example, a wellness training program can involve virtually all employees in an organization, and have a visible impact on employee health, job performance, and benefit costs (Ivancevich, 1980).

Given the constraints of others' expectations, the need to make a good first impression, and her limited knowledge of the organization, canny T&D managers recruit in-house experts to teach the initial course offerings, and adopt a train-the-trainer role. This strategy has the added advantage of minimizing program costs.

Initially, cost per student is the worst possible measure of T&D unit performance. Quality of content is more

important than attendance "body counts" or volume of course offerings. Over time, quality offerings generate the increased staff participation required to reduce unit costs.

Before the skills training activity is launched, a T&D policy should be issued by the college. The policy deals with issues such as mandatory versus voluntary coursework, released time for instruction, tuition remission and reimbursement, inclusion of training records in personnel files, training activity as a promotion criteria, etc. Ideally, the policy also covers institutional support to employee career development (to be discussed below). Career development involves issues such as a promotion-from-within policy, job-posting procedures, requirements for performance appraisal and individual development plans, supervisors' role in on-the-job training, career ladders, etc. Widespread management involvement in defining and resolving policy issues heightens management awareness of the new training thrust, while resolving issues that might emerge as roadblocks later.

It goes without saying that the training program must be soundly budgeted, managed and marketed. The literature abounds with helpful guidance about such fundamentals (e.g., Salinger, 1975).

Role

While establishing in-service skills training activities, the T&D manager concentrates her personal effort on:

1. Program design, making sure the content and process of the sessions meet established learning goals (Smith 1980);
2. Program marketing, making sure those who can benefit learn about training and attend;
3. Program logistics, making sure course scheduling, student registration, and facilities mesh without snafus;
4. Instructor development, making sure trainers are prepared, equipped, coached and given feedback to foster their development.

PHASE II: ON-THE-JOB CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Objective

Armed with a reputation built upon a sound skills and procedures training program, the T&D manager can hope to enlist more helpers to multiply the impact of an expanded program. To achieve critical mass, any T&D program eventually must get out of the classroom and into the workplace on an ongoing basis (Bare, 1981). To move staff development activity into the workplace, the T&D manager must persuade the supervisor of each work unit to shoulder a portion of the training and development load, and train them to perform that role effectively (Broadwell, 1975).

Ideally, maximum staff development would take place in an organization where every employee received (Bare, 1981):

1. An ongoing and supportive assessment of her current job performance.
2. Assistance in preparing a personal development plan to build on strengths and improve weaknesses.
3. Meaningful on-the-job learning opportunities linked to development needs.
4. Training by the supervisor and others in the work group.
5. Feedback to refine emerging skills.

The systematic attempt to help individuals create valid personal growth plans and to provide on-the-job learning opportunities responsive to these plans is known broadly as "career development." The design of the career development process must take into account the different needs and expectations of faculty and staff. These differences are discussed in Bare (1977). Nonetheless, common elements lie at the heart of both faculty and staff career development programs. These essentials are:

1. self-development planning
2. on-the-job learning
3. coaching or mentoring by others

A model faculty development program is described in Bare (1979) and a model program for administrators in Bare (1983).

Problems

The prudent T&D manager will not assume that faculty need

developing. Instead, she will mount a career development for exempt staff. Faculty development is best pursued through the faculty governance structure by faculty opinion leaders.

Career development of exempt staff requires the support of two groups: (1) individual staff members, who must prepare their personal development plans, and (2) supervisors throughout the organization, who must provide the on-the-job learning experiences and coaching needed to convert the plans into new skills.

The T&D manager cannot assume that all staff will embrace career development. Only a portion of any population desires growth or mobility. Moreover, depending upon the history of labor-management relations at a particular institution, staff may view growth experiences as a managerial strategy to get more work for the same pay. Thus, participation in the process should be voluntary--at least initially.

A career development program may encounter resistance from other quarters. Supervisors may not see staff development as a pressing organizational need, and most will lack the requisite coaching skills. Management may balk at such programs for fear of raising employee expectations of mobility. Unions may balk at job enrichment, and any discussion of career ladders to complement the training process may become a collective bargaining issue.

Another problem in establishing any new program is

sustaining the activity after the first blush of enthusiasm wears off. Thus, it is especially important to manage the introduction of a program of this scope (Beckhard and Harris, 1977). The effectiveness of each individual manager in implementing comprehensive staff development in her unit should become a consideration in the formal appraisal of performance.

Strategy

To establish a career development process, the T&D manager must first secure the support of top executives. The executive staff must approve the formal elements of the process: performance appraisal; written individual development plans; training for all supervisors in methods of on-the-job training, coaching and job enrichment; career planning workshops for staff members, etc. (E.H. Schein, 1978).

The second requirement is to provide the training needed to prepare supervisors to assume the coaching role in the career development process. At the minimum, supervisors must be trained in techniques for developing staff on the job. Ideally, they also should be trained in all aspects of supervisory role performance. But a basic obstacle remains. Many supervisors don't wish to be trained. How can they be motivated?

Newman (1975) describes a "practical, participative management development program" which deals with the problem.

In the program described by Newman, the trainees help define the content of training in a way that integrates classroom experiences with their personal development plans and on-the-job coaching by mentors and superiors. Clearly, by having supervisors participate in planning the training and by basing it on their personal development plans, its relevance is increased, as is their motivation. Including on-the-job coaching by their superiors improves the transfer of the training and provides incentives for lasting behavior change.

The most important supervisory skills cannot be acquired in a classroom (Thomas, 1974). Supervisors need to know precisely what to do in a variety of interpersonal situations (e.g., discipline interviews, job instruction training, conference leadership). Behavior modeling techniques (Goldstein and Sorcher, 1974) are especially useful in teaching such skills. In behavior modeling sessions, adept models demonstrate effective supervisory behavior in each situation. Then, the trainees practice the behavior under the guidance of observers until each can produce the proper responses in videotaped role plays. Coaching and experience on the job refine the new skills.

The third requirement is to implement career development throughout the organization, starting as close to the top as possible. By introducing the process from the top down, each participant experiences the program before having to conduct it with subordinates. Higher level executives model the process for subordinates and, hence, assume a portion of the supervisory training burden. In addition,

their participation suggests that it be taken seriously.

Managerial example may encourage supervisors to develop staff on the job. But the secret of success is to simplify the supervisor's role as much as possible. For example, by requiring staff to perform self-assessments and draft their personal development plans during career planning workshops, the supervisor is freed of the psychological burden of initiating performance appraisals and drafting individual development plans for each subordinate.

Role

During the introduction of career development, the T&D manager begins to play the role of organizer. She must work with:

1. Top management, to develop policies and procedures governing organization-wide performance assessment, individual development planning, career progression ladders, high-potential personnel identification, succession planning, etc.
2. Supervisors, to train them in staff development techniques, counsel them about employee problems, and provide feedback on the effectiveness of their on-the-job development efforts.
3. Unions, employee and minority groups to build support for career development programs.

During this phase of program evolution, the T&D manager has the opportunity to build a personal influence network throughout the organization. In addition, she can begin to identify resource persons at all levels who may be called upon to work in staff development programs, as well as opinion leaders whose support can benefit T&D.

PHASE III: ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

Objective

The T&D manager's greatest potential impact is through those systemic changes which help the organization improve and adapt. By helping to change an organization's processes or structure, that is, by changing the "way things are done," she can have a far greater impact than by improving the skills and job-fit of individual employees.

Organization development encompasses the full range of change techniques appropriate to academic institutions. Bergquist and Shoemaker (1976) identify three broad modes of planned change: (1) structural, (2) process and (3) attitudinal. Structural, or organizational-level changes, include modifications to budget and control operations; rewards modifications; addition or deletion of programs, positions, or units; personnel changes; or changes in formal or informal policy or procedures. Process changes occur at the group level. The authors note that "Although process-oriented approaches to change in higher education have not been

as frequently used as structural or attitudinal approaches, at least five different strategies have been tried with some success: human relations training, process consultation, team building, intergroup activities, and survey-feedback activities."

Problems

One difficulty is the fact that non-profit institutions are more highly politicized than many private corporations. Management by clique and cabal is a common style in government and colleges, institutions where internal power centers must compete for scarce resources. Since OD has a value and process bias toward power sharing, decentralization of planning and control, and open communication, it is not greeted enthusiastically by managers who believe they must relinquish their personal power in order to empower organization members.

Moreover, OD can only succeed when organizations are "ready." Pfeiffer and Jones (1978) state that "An intriguing parallel exists between the concept of OD readiness and the developmental trait of reading readiness. Once an individual child is ready to read, it is somewhat immaterial which teaching method is used. Conversely, when a child is not ready to learn to read, all strategies are relatively unsuccessful. In an analogous way, once an organizational system has the necessary prerequisites, change is likely to take place regardless of which methodology is applied. Conversely, the most sophisticated techniques employed by the

most competent consultants and managers are doomed to failure when the organization itself is unready to undertake a project of planned change."

Assuming organizational readiness, Pfeiffer and Jones identify four basic OD entry strategies:

1. Working from the top down
2. Intervening at "crunch points"
3. Working with "bellweather groups"
4. Conducting training

This writer's experience suggests that the best approach is to initiate administrative change from the top down. In contrast, academic change is best pursued from the bottom upward, working with carefully selected bellweather groups, for the reasons discussed below.

Colleges and universities have unique organizational forms and attract staff having diverse needs and values. In organization theory, these organizations are described as an organic core surrounded by a mechanistic shell (Osborn, et.al., 1980). Organic (faculty) units are characterized by a decentralized hierarchy of authority, few rules or procedures, ambiguous division of labor, minimal use of management technique, and informal coordination and control. Mechanistic units are typical bureaucracies, having centralized authority, formal rules and managerial controls, job specialization, and extensive use of management techniques. For the change agent, the differences between the academic core and the

administrative shell are absolutely critical. The different cultures imply different intervention methods, and the different problems imply different solutions.

Kells (1980) argues that academic units suffer from special problems:

1. Lack of consensus about goals and measurement of performance
2. Poorly developed methods of gathering performance data
3. Mixed modes of decision making
4. High levels of inter-unit competition
5. Leaders who lack managerial and group skills
6. Members having professional rather than institutional orientations
7. No history of collective planning; reactive rather than proactive approaches to problem solving

"Given these difficulties," Kells concludes, "useful systematic consideration of goal achievement; studies of the functioning of academic subsystems; open, continuous communication; and systematic ongoing self-analysis and planning are all very difficult."

Lindquist (1978) describes the types of OD strategies that have evolved within the academic core to deal with these problems, and proposes a participative, collegial model of planned change to guide academic OD projects. His LOLOR model emphasizes:

1. Linkage between internal change agents and external experts
2. Open change development and decision processes
3. Leadership involvement
4. Ownership by group members of the change data and process
5. Rewards for accomplishment, both material and psychological

Schein and Greiner (1976) recognize that, although bureaucracies perform certain tasks effectively, most suffer from similar problems, each of which implies a unique OD response. These problems are:

1. Conflicts between specialized organizational functions.
2. Lack of career paths to develop broad-gauge managers.
3. Top-down information flow combined with executive ignorance of operating-level problems.
4. Routine jobs which breed employee dissatisfaction and stultify staff development.

Daft (1983) suggests that a top down, prescriptive strategy works best to implement change in bureaucratic units. In the bureaucratic shell, ideas for change are generated by participative problem-solving processes as in academic units. However, these processes occur only at the top of the organization. Moreover, unlike academic groups, bureaucratic units rely more heavily upon the OD consultant for expert recommendations. Most importantly, once change goals are set, change is implemented through the line management structure in the bureaucracy. The implementation phase stresses the usual bureaucratic mechanisms: planning, delegation, and performance

review.

Strategy

The T&D manager must focus initially upon building readiness for OD. Phases I and II can be seen as essential precursors. Then, the early interventions must be selected and conducted with care. The best way to begin is to mount a visible series of successful demonstration projects. The probability of a visible success instead of catastrophe will be higher if the early efforts are voluntary, involve basically healthy groups, employ professional facilitators, link to acceptable processes in the institution's tradition, and employ action research methods.

OD consultants often say that a group will not change its behavior because members don't feel enough pain. The notion is that people will not change until the status quo makes them so miserable they are willing to undergo the effort of change to escape it. While it is probably true that there is no change without pain, it doesn't follow that the most pained group in the organization is the place to start one's OD program. Rather, choose a "healthy" group that is receptive to the notion of OD, and ready to undertake the process of self-directed performance improvement.

If the T&D manager has built networks artfully during the early stages, someone will voluntarily seek her assistance as a change agent. Volunteer groups show readiness to deal with problems. It is impossible to force OD upon unwilling

clients. However, it is definitely possible to mount an OD program from the bottom of the organization upward (Beer and Huse, 1982).

Although the cultures, structures, and problems of the academic core and the bureaucratic shell differ, it seems possible to suggest a general approach to successful post-secondary OD based upon minimizing resistance to change. Schermerhorn et. al. (1982) suggest that resistance is minimized when changes:

1. Demonstrate a clear advantage to participants
2. Are compatible with existing values
3. Demand few complex or new skills
4. Are triable on an incremental or pilot basis
5. Are introduced without coercion

Properly applied, the action research process minimizes resistance to change because the change agent never usurps group "ownership" of change process and content. Action research (French and Bell, 1978) is the process of helping a group:

1. Gather information about its performance, opportunities and problems
2. Diagnose problem causes and visualize constructive alternatives
3. Prepare a coherent plan for implementing and managing the change
4. Undertake the change

5. Measure the effectiveness of the change and make necessary adjustments
6. Fix new ways as a permanent mode of operation

Obviously, this process demands that the T&D consultant know a wide range of techniques for gathering data, understand organization theory in order to provide expert interpretation of findings and suggest alternatives, be able to facilitate group problem-solving processes, know evaluation and feedback methods, etc.

The first phase of the OD process, gathering valid data, is crucial (Argyris, 1970). Resistance to change can be overcome only when an organization confronts performance data, accepts the need to improve, and establishes a working mechanism to conduct and monitor the change. Fortunately, proven instruments for systematic data gathering are available from the American Council on Education's Higher Education Management Institute.

OD programs have a way of being coopted by people in the organization trying to promote their own goals. While it is important to involve opinion leaders in OD activity, one must beware of organizational politicians who wish to take over the activity to promote their hidden agenda or their own prominence in the organization. Conducting sufficient "sensing" interviews prior to the program usually discloses the hidden agendas (Fordyce and Weil, 1978).

The skills of the change agent are an important predictor of organization development results. The skills and style of the change

agent must fit the particular demands of the program (Blake and Mouton, 1976). If in doubt about one's skills, hire an outside consultant. The POD Network refers consultants upon request. Apprenticing oneself to a consultant is a good way to acquire skills, and a useful quality control tactic as well. Other criteria may dictate selection of an outside consultant: for example, where the target group feels unable to deal openly with an insider.

Tailoring the OD design to familiar or acceptable processes minimizes resistance based upon fear of new or alien ways of doing things. Since the essence of OD is participative data gathering and self-diagnosis, packaged programs cannot be imported with a high probability of success. For example, survey-guided group problem solving meetings, laden with data processing technology and the jargon of industrial management, may prove offensive to academic administrators of post-secondary institutions; whereas, the same underlying activity projected as an academic self-study process (Kells, 1980) would be familiar and acceptable.

Finally, the T&D manager must learn to brag well. One's most visible accomplishments may remain invisible to a culture which is not trained to perceive them. The T&D manager should miss no opportunity to publicize the success of her programs, albeit in terms of the heroism of the participants themselves, through both formal reports to higher management and the organization's public media.

Role

The transition from T&D manager to change agent is the

most difficult to make. It is one that few have made in post-secondary institutions. Although the change agent may be called on to play a variety of demanding roles (Barber and Nord, 1977), that of action researcher is central. As noted earlier, this role requires working with in-place groups to:

1. Collect valid data about their performance;
2. Facilitate problem diagnosis, decision making, and change planning; and
3. Evaluate performance improvements and stimulate commitment to "new ways of doing things" on a permanent basis.

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